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ABSTRACT

Designed for developmental educators involved in a Telementoring Project, this instructional unit identifies common causes of poor academic performance by students enrolled in developmental programs. The sections of the unit address: (1) students' lack of personal and/or academic autonomy in terms of expected success, locus of control, and interventions for strengthening internal locus of control; (2) mismatched styles of learning and teaching; (3) reading and vocabulary deficiencies and instructional techniques that can help students overcome them; (4) negative attitudes toward education and the ways in which educational policies can reinforce them; (5) deficiencies in critical thinking/reasoning skills and general knowledge, and the problems of "mispreparedness" and "underpreparedness"; and (6) learning disabilities. In addition to discussing the problem, each section examines relevant instructional techniques and provides a bibliography. A list of discussion questions concludes the unit. Appendixes provide an annotated bibliography of ERIC materials and relevant journal articles. (AYC)

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TELEMENTORING PROJECT STUDY GUIDE NUMBER SIX

Causes of Marginal Performance by Developmental Students

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c. 1988

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PURPOSE

This unit is an essay in the literal sense of the French cognate **essai** -- that is, an **attempt** to codify the more common causes of poor academic performance by learners enrolled in developmental programs. In all likelihood, the outline of this initial taxonomy will change pending further research and refinement. Nevertheless, the current framework should stimulate the thinking of practitioners and assist them in constructing effective action plans for students.

Nine reasons for poor performance are cited and analyzed as are their respective causes and symptoms. Diagnostic aids and treatment strategies are recommended for each case, and prognostic estimates also are provided. Given this information, practitioners ideally will be persuaded to adjust their daily practice for congruence with both the theoretical and applied principles described herein.

RATIONALE

While we as developmental practitioners cannot be held accountable for our students' pasts, we most certainly do bear responsibility for the interventions undertaken once students enroll for participation in our programs.

OBJECTIVES

At the conclusion of this unit, you should be able to:

* define the key terms and concepts listed in the glossary;

* list and describe nine causes of poor performance by developmental students;

* briefly outline the behavioral symptoms associated with each cause;

* discuss appropriate diagnostic instruments and treatment procedures for these various learning problems; and

* state the immediate and longer term prognoses for each case following the application of appropriate intervention and treatment.

LEARNING ACTIVITIES

The learning activities in this unit include reading materials, a videotape, group review and discussion questions and, where feasible, teleconferencing by telephone or computer networking. **The videotaped presentation may be used either as an introductory activity or as a device for review and consolidation.**

Similarly, the section containing the review and discussion questions may be used 1) as an initial, brief overview of the important concepts in this unit, and 2) as a guide to focus participants' discussions during local meetings. In the latter case, participants ideally will elect to share new theoretical insights and refine implementation plans in consultation with each other.

GLOSSARY

Your study of this unit will be enhanced by a thorough understanding of the definitions presented below:

* **locus of control:** a personality variable describing the relative degree to which one perceives the relationship between his behavior and its attendant outcomes and reinforcements;

* **internal locus of control:** the end of the locus-of-control continuum that correlates highly with expectancy for success and accountability for one's actions;

* **externality:** the other end of the locus-of-control continuum that correlates negatively with success expectancy and personal autonomy;

* **success expectancy:** a personality variable derived from the general pattern of one's reinforcement history over time and plotted on a continuum from low to high;

* **channel efficiency:** the notion that the various modes of perception are not always uniformly effective from individual to individual;

* **metacognition:** thinking about how people think.

LACK OF PERSONAL AND/OR ACADEMIC AUTONOMY

One of the more exquisite ironies of contemporary society is that while the American nation was founded on the principles of autonomy and self-determination, the complexity of our social order -- with its attendant depersonalization and alienation -- has severely eroded the efficacy of these traditional values for large segments of our population. Moreover, many students are coming to colleges from non-traditional family backgrounds and with unconventional educational histories. Many of these students -- as well as some of their cohort from more affluent backgrounds -- also bring with them histories of academic failure, instructional abuse, and/or minimal (if any) sense of control and self-determination in their lives.

The apparent "lack of motivation" attributed to many such students belies an underlying attitude of desperation born of the notion that outside influences are in control and that individual effort is therefore of no consequence. Thus, students who feel powerless are not likely to try because they do not feel that they can succeed. They indeed want to succeed: i.e., the achievement motivation is present, yet they expect to fail. Characterized as they are by feelings of powerlessness, worthlessness, and alienation, such students fall prey to their own self-fulfilling prophecies, and are prone to exhibit inappropriate adaptive behaviors such as lethargy, hostility, apathy, unrealistic levels of aspiration, learned helplessness, and similar deficiencies in experientially-dependent and problem-solving skills. Consequently, one of the greater challenges facing developmental faculty and staff is to assist such students in realizing a sense of personal autonomy and instilling a concomitant expectancy for success in their lives. (Note Lucy's all-too-familiar behavior in the cartoon on page 9.)

Success Expectancy and Locus of Control

One of the more promising and thoroughly researched techniques for helping students develop a sense of personal autonomy lies in the concept of locus of control and the corollary notion of reinforcement expectancy. Originally pioneered by psycho-therapists, counseling psychologists, and others interested in effecting behavior modification in a clinical or correctional setting, both the theory and application of these concepts in education have drawn from diverse sources which include learning theory, personality theory, and more recently, young-adult and adult developmental psychology.

Locus of control is a personality variable derived from a theory of social learning first postulated by Rotter in 1954. This variable is plotted on a continuum between limits defined as external and internal. To Rotter (1966), an internal is a person who perceives that events and reinforcements are indeed contingent upon his behavioral characteristics. An external, on the other hand, is one who does not perceive a relationship between his own behavior and subsequent outcomes.

Rotter further suggested that the orientation of one's locus of control was a function of his reinforcement history, i.e., his ability to distinguish between the direct and chance relationships connecting his actions (or lack thereof) and their consequences (positive or negative reinforcements) generalized over time. Thus, given a reinforcement history, a pattern of expectancy emerges that correlates with locus of control -- internals having a higher expectancy for success and externals having a lower success expectancy.

Interventions for Strengthening Internality

Not long after Rotter's theories were published, various investigators began reporting success with three change techniques that focused on manipulating the locus of control and expectancy variables toward internality. Owing to their relative simplicity and efficacy, each is outlined below:

> **Dua** (1970) hypothesized that externality is rooted in past failures -- that externals have low success expectancies because they have little or no experience with success and/or are not conversant with efficient methods of effecting positive change in their lives. Consequently, Dua designed and validated an action-oriented model for improving interpersonal relationships. His counselees were first requested to list, in priority order, three significant others with whom they were unable to relate. Next, Dua suggested that the counselees define, in behavioral terms, the perceived problems of interaction in each relationship. Finally, with the use of tangible suggestions, he assisted the counselees in designing specific action plans to change their actual behaviors vis-a-vis the significant others.
>
> In a parallel but contrasting study, **Masters** (1970) reported success in altering counselees' attitudes and perceptions about their behaviors without changing the behaviors themselves. The crux of Masters' theory is that attitudinal change is a key to developing internality in that one may assess his behavior either as yielding and submissive to powerful others (an external

orientation) or as instrumental in obtaining rewards and diffusing punishments (an internal orientation).

Masters' classic example is that of G.B., an adolescent male, who viewed his parents as "almighty controllers" who constantly were nagging and argumentative about the boy's reluctance to perform his domestic chores. At the suggestion of his counselor, G.B. mowed the lawn without being told to, and thus received thankful rather than frustrated responses from his father.

Reimanis & Schaefer (1970) report a series of techniques for shifting counselees to a more internal orientation by helping them to realize that they indeed do have the power to effect positive change for themselves. Their tripartite program consists of the following steps:

> 1. Challenging or confronting each instance of expressed externality with an attempt to replace it with an internal statement or question -- "They want me to do ..." is countered with, "What do you want to do?"
>
> 2. Rewarding each occurrence of internality -- "I will go to the learning lab for help with ... " "My plan for solving my conflict is ..."
>
> 3. Coaching counselees to focus and act upon the cause-and-effect relationships between their behaviors and subsequent outcomes -- "What could you have done differently last fall to avoid this problem this semester?" "What can you do now to resolve this difficulty?" "What have you learned from this experience that will help you cope with similar problems in the future?"

MacDonald (1973) has suggested -- and this writer concurs --that as a matter of practicality in everyday intervention, a composite strategy synthesized from the models above would be the most effective. Mink (1974) has pioneered such a model of reinforcement counseling and perceives it as being congruent with Glasser's model of reality therapy (1965, 1969, 1972). Three salient characteristics that distinguish these latter process models are provisions for values clarification, group reinforcement (peer help), and follow-up (refinement) of reshaped behaviors.

Reprise and Conclusions

Students diagnosed as having problems with externality and low success expectancy may come from any socio-economic background. Indeed, this writer has confronted the symptoms with students from very advantaged financial backgrounds in the setting of an exclusive private school whose student body had been overly protected and was without prospect of dire life challenges or experiences.

Yet the phenomena of anomie and learned helplessness also can afflict those from traditionally middle-class backgrounds. Again from this writers experience, but with a more conventional and heterogeneous student population, substantial work often was required to counteract the legacies of externality imprinted in student behaviors by traditional pedagogues, shop foremen, top sergeants, parents, corporate chieftains, and similar authority figures.

Clearly, remedial and developmental students from disadvantaged backgrounds do not have exclusive rights to the lack of personal and/or academic autonomy. The litany of symptoms for the various, afflicted constituencies is a common one:

* inability to make decisions;

* feelings of powerlessness;

* failure to put forth effort;

* belief in luck rather than effort;

* irresponsible behavior regarding assignments and tests; and

* failure to use good study habits and techniques.

In addition to anecdotal evidence derived from personal interviews and observation, practitioners may find diagnostic help by employing personality inventories (**the Omnibus Personality Inventory**); locus-of-control inventories (**the Nowicki-Strickland Adult I-E Scale**); expectancy inventories (**the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire**); and study skills/behaviors assessments (**the Student Development Task Inventory / the Study Behavior Inventory**).

Once diagnosed, effective treatments for the lack of autonomy and low success expectancy include:

* early success experiences;

* a positive and supportive learning environment;

* frequent opportunities for making decisions and selecting from available choices;

* consistency and clarity of instructional objectives that correlate highly with course materials, activities, and evaluations; and

* **Outward Bound** type experiences.

With proper intervention and treatment, the short-term prognosis is only fair to poor; yet, for the longer term, the chances are good to very good. In either case, the primary goal of the practitioner is to have the counselee assume a sense of responsibility for his actions and their ensuing consequences.

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See also **Appendix I** for relevant items selected from a recent search of the **ERIC** data base.

MISMATCHED STYLES OF LEARNING AND TEACHING

Introduction

Another quite common cause of marginal -- and often erratic -- performance among developmental and remedial students results from the incongruities between their preferred styles of learning and their professors' preferences in the design of learning activities. The symptoms of this condition may include good grades in one course and poor grades in another, discrepancies between perceived or measured ability and actual performance, complaints about the nature of tests and assignments, and, of course, the expressed desire for some type of instruction other than that in currency in a given course.

Such student overdependence upon a single style of learning may be traced to: a) the failure to develop and cultivate appropriate learning strategies during prior schooling; and/or b) underexposure and inexperience with diverse teaching styles. While the student may well be called to account for contingency "a," the responsibility for condition "b" rests squarely in the domain of uninformed and ineffective professional practice.

Fortunately, diagnostic instruments such as those published by Canfield, Kolb, and Dunn are available to assist in diagnosing either case -- the results constituting a precondition for constructive dialogue between student and teacher. Indeed, it is not uncommon for the latter to report quantum leaps of insight following the self-administration of a learning-styles inventory: "Gees, I'm in a world of trouble; I just found out I couldn't stand to take a course from myself!"

Two Practical Applications

The **Canfield Learning-Styles Inventory**, a popular learning-styles assessment instrument characterized by ease and speed of administration, has undergone extensive revision subsequent to its original development in the mid-1970's. This inventory measures student preferences in four areas: conditions of learning, content of learning, mode of learning, and success expectancy for learning. These four categories represent both the affective and cognitive dimensions of individual learning styles.

Moreover, Canfield's categories for assessing learning styles are not based upon his own peculiar theory of learning. Indeed, his schema incorporates the theoretical and practical work of others who have investigated human learning. His areas of measurement, therefore, are well grounded in previous research but not tied to any particular

theory of learning differences. (Canfield explains the development of his inventory as well as some of the practical implications of its use in **APPENDIX II**: "An Interview with Al Canfield.")

Canfield's category of conditions of learning is based on the research of Litwin and Stringer (1968), Tagiuri and Litwin (1968), Maslow (1970), and McLelland (1961). This research indicates that individuals perform best when their environment is consistent with personal motivational factors such as needs for affiliation, eminence, structure, and/or achievement.

Similarly, the category of content of learning has considerable face validity. According to Canfield, "From a practical point of view, subjects seem to perform best when engaged in subject matter of greatest interest" (1983, p. 2). Accordingly, his instrument assesses student content preferences in four areas: "numerical," "qualitative," "people," and "inanimate."

Canfield's category, **mode of learning**, is based on the work of Travers (1973) and Gagne (1967). Gagne first proposed the notion of **channel efficiency** -- the idea that individuals differ in the efficiency of various channels for perception. For instance, some students learn better by reading because this channel is most efficient for them; for others, listening may be the most efficient channel.

Finally, the Canfield Learning Styles Inventory measures student expectations of learning. This category is based on the well-documented assumption that student performance is influenced by student expectations for success in the learning endeavor: Students who expect to do well often obtain high grades, while those with low success expectancy usually obtain low grades (Sperry, 1972).

Research over two decades indicates that learning styles are indeed a major factor in student learning. Furthermore, there is a growing body of evidence to suggest that student learning may be improved by adjusting instructional methods to individual student styles. For example, the maximum power of Canfield's system reaches its full potential only if student data are matrixed with data from his companion instrument, the **Canfield Instructional-Styles Inventory**. The product suggests, in order of priority, specific teaching strategies appropriate for the student sample and comfortable for the professor (Canfield, 1983).

Yet, in spite of such evidence, too many faculty continue to resist the development of individualized course activities derived from the use of learning-styles information. Some faculty claim that it simply takes too much work to accommodate the individual styles of all the

students in their classes, while others argue that it is not doing students a favor to cater to their particular learning styles. This group contend instead that students should be forced to learn new styles so that they will be better prepared to cope with the "real world."

The debate over whether students are better served by adjusting instruction to learning styles has raged for some time. Bernice McCarthy (1981) argues that instructors should make consistent efforts to insure that course material is systematically presented in all four modes of learning. This process claims to insure that all students receive instruction consistent with their best style of learning during at least 25 percent of the course. This technique also claims to help students improve their learning in other modes. Explained in greater detail in **APPENDIX III** and marketed as the **4MAT System**, McCarthy's argument is cogent, and under normal circumstances, it probably represents a very effective application of learning-styles theory.

McCarthy's position notwithstanding, it is of primary importance **when dealing with all remedial and some developmental students to make sure that they first master necessary skills before trying to expand the effective range of their learning styles.** As a general rule, for students who have the most difficulty in learning new material, adjusting instructional activities to individually preferred styles is one of the best ways to improve their learning. Then, **after basic skills have been mastered, it is quite appropriate to teach to a variety of learning styles** in order to promote diversity of channel efficiency. More simply put, common sense --as well as sound professional practice -- dictates building on existing strengths prior to carping on alleged weaknesses.

Whatever the case, a working knowledge of student learning styles and faculty teaching styles is an essential adjunct of effective instruction and program management. After all, the choice is quite simple: either one shoots blindly in the dark hoping to hit upon an effective strategy, or one assesses the target and locks onto the bull's eye!

Conclusions

With proper intervention and treatment, the prognosis for resolving mismatched styles of learning and teaching is quite good, both for the short and long terms. A systematic intervention program should include individual consultations and/or in-service workshops for faculty groups with instructional-design specialists on the use of alternative teaching styles. Such a comprehensive program also should include discussion and counseling with students regarding the results of learning-styles assessments as well as specific training in the use of diverse learning strategies.

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READING/VOCABULARY DEFICIENCIES

Introduction

Generally, any circumstances that preclude exposure to proper models of the spoken language and/or experience with the standard printed language have devastating effects on the development of vocabulary and reading skills. More specifically, the lack of early experience with the English language (ESL), the lack of early exposure to standard English (e.g., first-generation college students), poor text selection during elementary schooling, and absenteeism from subsequent schooling are among the specific reasons for the reading and vocabulary deficits brought by students into remedial and developmental classrooms.

The symptoms of these deficits manifest themselves as the inability to comprehend textbooks, written instructions, and test questions; poor vocabulary and speaking skills; an air of uncertainty and discomfort in class; and negative or insecure body language. Nevertheless, such symptoms are not intractable; with early intervention and proper treatment, the prognosis is generally good. In fact, gains of two or three grade levels per semester are common and **sustainable** -- as long as treatment continues.

Remedial and other types of reading improvement courses, guided practice in learning assistance programs, and individual tutoring comprise the more effective and affordable interventions in wide use. Various combinations of these techniques are utilized with substantial reliance upon workbook- or computer-based assistance for those skills lending themselves to improvement through drill and practice.

As to the assessment of reading competence, the **Degrees of Reading Power**, the **Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills**, and the **Nelson-Denny Reading Test** merit attention -- in rank order of preference,if not popularity -- as commonly used diagnostic instruments. Of these three, the first is clearly superior because it is **not time-based**. (**Appendix IV**: "A Testimonial on Timed Testing : Developmental Students and Reading Comprehension Tests," cogently documents this crucial point.) Consequently, the **DRP** is a better measure of the overall ability to comprehend written materials than is the **N-D** which enjoys face validity derived from its vocabulary-based content, or the **CTBS** which is both content- and objectives-based.

Regardless of the relative merits of this or that test, a larger point remains. Inasmuch as the selection of assessment instruments often influences instructional design, the importance of knowing what is being measured cannot easily be overstated.

Doing It Right: Tips from Successful Practitioners

Milligan (1986) observed and interviewed some three dozen remedial and resource room teachers over a two-year period in an attempt to determine "what works" in the real world of remedial-reading instruction. Not surprisingly, the summary of his findings often takes more the form of "what doesn't work" -- i.e., what does not comply with the preponderance of current, informed opinion in the field. The following is an expanded discussion of some of his key findings as they relate to effective learning-assistance practices.

1. Inadequate time is devoted to actual reading while a disproportionate amount of time is spent on skills instruction. Just as remedial and developmental students need adequate opportunities to practice basic skills in any content area, the poor readers among them need to be engaged in reading in order to improve. Indeed, there are no special skills that readers must learn that cannot be learned from reading (Smith, 1982). Thus, the more successful the teacher is at getting students to do some type of reading, the more effective the program (Allington, 1977).

2. The link between poor selection of diagnostic instruments and undue emphasis on phonic decoding and similar word attack skills cannot be overstated. Diagnostic instruments that focus on students' abilities to orally reproduce texts and recognize words in isolation propagate the use and modeling of instructional strategies that exclude the impartation of the essential skill of using semantic and syntactic clues to decode meaning from text. For example, poor readers usually receive megadoses of skills instruction on medial vowels and word endings, yet filling in blanks, marking vowel values on worksheets, and responding to isolated graphemes are neither acts of reading engagement nor fluency.

3. Focusing on accuracy in oral reading and encouraging readers to sound out unfamiliar words are impediments to fluency (Samuels, 1979). Students should be taught to do what good readers do -- to skip unfamiliar words and try to make sense of print without knowing all the words or by making informed guesses based upon contextual and syntactic clues (Goodman, 1971). Insisting that unfamiliar words be sounded out slows reading because it forces the reader to look more closely at print. Moreover, it makes taxing demands on short-term memory, thereby further impeding decoding fluency.

4. Overlooking the importance of background knowledge is one of the worst mistakes a reading teacher can make. An abundance of research has demonstrated that prior knowledge and ease and speed of comprehension vary directly (Holmes, 1983; Langer and Nicolich, 1983). For example, it never

failed to amaze me that disabled readers in my classes who were aficionados of expensive Japanese stereos had little, if any, difficulty in quickly making sense of the manufacturers' attendant promotional literature!

Similarly, the use of high-interest, low-vocabulary materials that have been "doped" to conform to a readability formula can only guarantee the endless presence of "dopes" in our reading classes. The very notion of controlling vocabulary and sentence length is condescending to students: it presupposes an expectation of failure, perpetuates stasis, and robs students of opportunities to grow.

Davison and Kantor (1982) are among those who have demonstrated that familiarity with, and interest in, reading materials affect fluency far more than any of the textual features measured by readability formulae. Consequently, instructional time would be better invested in having students read lyrics to familiar songs, or poems and stories that have been read to them several times or that have been taped for their repeated listening (Cunningham, 1979; Forester, 1977).

5. It is important to remember that poor readers are not poor readers because they make reversals; rather, they make reversals because they are poor readers. Unaccomplished readers very often fail to make sufficient use of syntactic and semantic clues that signal the inappropriateness of their reversals. Thus, it is erroneous to immediately assume the presence of some visual, neurological, or psychological pathology as the causative factor when reversals invariably do occur (Harman, 1982).

Using inappropriate activities to focus on letters or words that have been reversed is yet another significant impediment to developing reading fluency and autonomy. Instead of placing the identified letters and words on flashcards or tracing and sounding exercises (which purportedly train the student to sound out combinations of graphemes from left to right), Goodman and Burke (1980) argue for training readers to monitor their own reading by periodically asking themselves if what they are reading makes any sense.

Indeed, print almost never makes any sense if a reversal has occurred. In such instances, the teacher should not interrupt the reader to correct him, but wait until he has completed the paragraph and ask whether it made sense to him. Should the reader not correct the reversal, Harman (1982) suggests covering the graphemes in question and helping the reader discover which words might fit in and make sense.

Concluding Commentary

Ideally, the goal of remedial reading instruction should be the development of independent readers who, thus equipped, can become more and more accomplished at autonomous learning. Clearly, enabling developmentally diverse adults in remedial or developmental reading programs requires that practitioners be ever mindful of sound andragogical theory and implement its attendant practices (Somers, 1988). The crucial professional task -- and obligation -- therefore becomes assisting learners to negotiate successfully the transition between **learning to read and reading to learn**. Indeed, in the area of language arts instruction, the term "fading" has been used to roughly approximate the key andragogical concept of shifting the responsibility for learning from teacher to student (Moore et al., 1986).

One of the more unfortunate realities of professional practice is that some well-meaning but ill-informed practitioners hinder rather than ease the crucial transition toward autonomous learning by failing to recognize the difference between learning to read and reading to learn (Herber and Nelson-Herber, 1987). They erroneously believe that once Johnny has mastered his basal reader, he is also well-equipped to autonomously master content-specific materials in mainstream courses.

When this unrealistic expectation inevitably backfires, Johnny is recycled through the learning-to-read skills cycle. What would really benefit him, of course, is instruction in the methods and techniques uniquely indigenous to any given discipline. In fact, an ever-expanding body of recent research findings argue persuasively for the provision of content-specific reading instruction as a means for developing autonomous learners. (See Dishner et al.,1986; Estes and Vaughn, 1985; Herber, 1978; Moore et al., 1986; Readence et al., 1985; and Vacca and Vacca, 1986.)

While the terms "autonomous reader" and "autonomous learner" are not interchangeable, the former is prerequisite to the latter. Helping students learn how to help themselves learn through reading should be central to our mission: Failure in this key task would not only deprive students of the dignity and joy of independence, but it also would deprive us of the satisfaction born of sharing in the responsibility for their success.

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NEGATIVE ATTITUDES TOWARD EDUCATION

This problem is exhibited more often than not by students whose prior educational experience has caused them to develop attitudinal problems that interfere with their receptivity to current learning. The etiology of this syndrome often includes various combinations of: 1) anti-education attitudes in the home and community; 2) negative prior experiences with teachers and other school authorities; and 3) a history of failure or disciplinary action in previous schooling.

On the other hand, in a society that puts a premium on extended adolescence, even students with traditionally middle-class backgrounds are not immune. For example, overly zealous parents can insist that their offspring matriculate in postsecondary education before they are ready to benefit fully from it.

Whatever the case, the crux of the problem is a lack of readiness for present learning. Manifest symptoms may include absenteeism, inattentive behavior when in class, negative body language, open sarcasm and defiance, and irresponsible behaviors regarding assignments and tests.

Reliable diagnostics subsume a two-fold approach. Objective data may be derived from the administration of the **Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes** as well as from the diversity of available personality inventories. Helpful anecdotal evidence may be obtained from personal observation and counseling evaluation, augmented by an examination of all previous educational records.

Negative attitudes constitute a long-term affliction. Clearly, the immediate prognosis is poor. Over the longer term, however, consistent support and ongoing counseling can help reduce undesirable behaviors, thereby brightening the prospects from fair to good. More specifically, recommended treatments involve the creation and maintenance of a supportive learning environment, consistent encouragement from instructional and other program staff, and early success experiences -- all of which must be constantly reinforced with systematic personal counseling, be it from professional or peer sources.

Educational Policy: A Shaper of Negative Attitudes?

During the past two decades, various writers have struggled to address the need for educational reform -- not only as an answer to sweeping social change, but also as an answer to the ubiquitous grousing about the poor quality of the products generated in the school systems of America. As concerned practitioners who inherit the worst of these

products, learning-assistance professionals can find comfort in an acquaintanceship with the views of the more representative among these writers. Such a review of the related literature can serve two purposes: 1) as an aid to understanding causes of negative attitudes among students, and 2) as an aid to defusing these attitudinal problems.

Among the first to grapple with the ideal of implementing universal and public democratic education, Charnofsky devoted an entire volume to explicating the "personality of despair" as the primary imprint left upon the poor and culturally different by our schools (**Educating the Powerless,** 1971). Essentially, he saw the process of empowerment as contingent upon the development of a sense of self-worth in all students.

Cultivating feelings of self-like, personal adequacy, and emerging autonomy are central impellers behind Charnofsky's initial demands for curricular and teacher-training reforms. The strategies outlined elsewhere in this paper as "Interventions for Strengthening Internality" address Charnofsky's concern for attending to "affective" curricular reform; i.e., building self-esteem and encouraging in learners a sense of responsibility for their respective choices and actions.

Subsequently, as noted in the commentary on the more recent works of Hirsch and Bloom, cultural relativism replaced socioeconomic impoverishment as the great threat to American education. Fortunately, Charnofsky sensed, but unfortunately failed to follow through on, a notion that Bloom and Hirsch assiduously avoided.

None of the three adequately seem to understand that the assimilation and integration of the culturally diverse into the mainstream culture of twentieth-century America cannot and will not conform to the traditional, upwardly mobile pattern normalized by those who immigrated through Ellis Island. As long as the tired and poor huddled masses are of Indo-European extraction, Bloom and Hirsch are quite content to carp out their frustration because they assume cultural literacy is not only possible, but also expeditiously attainable, inasmuch as it is posited on a base of Westernality.

Yet the reality of the matter, in our pluralistic country, is that groups like Africans who "immigrated" through Charleston, Chinese who entered through San Diego, and former Hispanic colonials who got in any way they could, (much less the American Indians who were already here) brought not one shred of Western culture with them! Simply put, membership in an entirely discrete cultural and ethnic block does not dissolve as readily in any melting pot as does the shared kinship of Indo-European community.

In consideration of the foregoing discussion, practitioners as potential change agents need be ever mindful of the potential negative effects -- i.e., negative attitudes toward education and educators -- that may be created or exacerbated by attempts to homogenize our various and pluralistic heritages by the rigorous imposition of traditional middle-class American values on diverse constituencies. After all, change is a threatening process in its own right, not to mention the fact some groups righteously resent former abuses while others, with perfectly serviceable cultures of their own, may not be disposed to readily giving them up in whole or in part.

Hence, the ultimate trap to avoid becomes one of leaping to overly hasty and judgmental conclusions by interpreting others values and mores solely in light of one's own. As Bertrand Russell once quipped, "Conventional people are roused to fury by departure from convention, largely because they regard such departure as a criticism of themselves."

Happily, at least one group of distinguished contemporary reformers, firm in their resolve to accept the facts as they are, have published an enlightening trilogy describing their eclectic approach for educational reform. The publications of the **Paideia Group** (Adler, 1982; 1983; 1984) are indeed uniquely refreshing for any number of reasons, not the least of which being their enthusiastic endorsement of the learning-assistance ethos and their corollary insistence that it be granted full institutional legitimacy! Similarly, the paideia group contends that the schools have failed all students and that, with negative attitudes toward education ubiquitous in society, why should students, of all constituencies, not share such attitudes. Nevertheless, for all its polemical efficacy, the Paideia Proposal remains largely an untested model.

Short of sweeping school reform, what then are some proven methods practitioners might adopt to help defuse negative attitudes among their students? One writer who has synthesized the best that the analysts, critics, and theoreticians have had to say is the great Brazilian adult educator Paulo Freire (1970). In the first of his works published in this country, **The Pedagogy of the Oppressed**, he explains the derivation and successful implementation of his elaborate system for educating peasants in Latin America.

Realizing that people frequently do not place any great value on their life experience, Freire found his students not believing in literacy as an appropriate or desirable goal inasmuch as it was a trapping of "high culture" and powerful social position. It also was apparent to him that this negative self-image had to be changed before the peasants could be motivated to read and write. Reasoning that

education could be either self-affirming and liberating or conforming and enslaving, he formulated two of his most crucial postulates -- **conscientizacao**, (consciousness-raising) and the "banking" concept of education.

The highly structured "banking" concept has as its goals intimidation, domination, and oppression:

* the teacher teaches, and the students are taught;

* the teacher knows all, the students nothing;

* the teacher thinks, the students are thought about;

* the teacher talks, the students listen.

In sharp contrast, **conscientizacao** implies "education for freedom," and attempts critical interventions in the realities of the status quo:

* it focuses on problem posing;

* it employs the method of dialogue;

* it results not in talk, but in behavioral change.

Freire also distinguished between the rather mystical and unreflective world view that the peasants brought to their initial learning and the critical vision of reality that he sought as its outcome. His aim, of course, was to reorder his students' view of the world and their role in it. He defines a critical and active process through which habits of anomie, resignation, and pessimism are overcome and replaced by the liberating empowerment of self-affirmation and self-efficacy.

If Freire's concept of "co-intentional education" subsumes some of the best ideas of the theorists, and if his techniques for reshaping centuries-old attitudes have proven successful, then what specifically are the implications for learning-assistance practitioners struggling to ameliorate negative attitudes in their students? The following activities may be of assistance to practitioners:

* read in detail the authors summarized in this section;

* learn about student concerns and aspirations, wants and needs, and social conditions from the students themselves;

* constantly be alert to the possibility that negative attitudes could be the expression of frustrations arising from one or more of the other problems cited in this paper;

* in presenting course work, master and use the counseling techniques described in the section on "Intervention for Strengthening Internality" as an adjunct to professional personal counseling;

* maintain a sensitivity to instructional and/or disciplinary abuse in prior schooling; and

* design assignments and select curriculum materials that not only teach content, but also have the potential for helping the learner to constructively confront social, cultural, and political realities.

Reprise and Conclusions

In summary, what overall contributions does each of the writers cited above have to offer the practitioner in the daily struggle with negative attitudes? As diverse as their perspectives are, the answers lie in their various treatments of common themes.

Certainly all concern themselves with the necessity for some kind of cultural meeting ground as a prerequisite to a liberal education. While Bloom defines the problem, he offers little, if any, help. Hirsch, at the other extreme, proposes an extensive symbolic culture of Westernality but reduces it to a prescriptive word list (cf. **Appendix V**). Charnofsky often seems to know what should be done but doesn't always know how. The Paideia Group claim to know how but have not. Nevertheless, Freire's work has synthesized the best contributions of each while excluding the worst.

The real genius of Freire's system lies in its willingness to begin at the beginning and to suspend unrealistic judgements about the performance of his students based upon what they should have known. It was only after he went to them to discover the words of their universe that he was able to construct primers that had them beginning to read and write in 45 days. He chose not just simple or frequently encountered words, but also words of high emotional valence that aroused the interest of his students and served his purpose of "co-intentional" education.

By starting with the problems and aspirations of the learners -- their condition, their wants and needs, the very concepts and language that they used -- he helped to equip the peasants with the mechanisms to grapple with the adversity of their human condition. His goal was not simply skills training but acculturation, the impartation of values and their attendant attitudinal and behavioral changes.

Though a very cursory summary of the profundity of Freire's philosophy and practice, the foregoing discussion does indicate the basic strategies involved. Clearly, the

teacher's first duty is to learn from the learner in order to expedite the transition from trainer to coach, and from coach to discussion leader. With its blend of didacticism, supervised practice, and maieutics (Socratic questioning and active learner participation), Freire's model closely parallels that of the Paideia Group (**Figure I**), aids in coalescing that sense of cultural community discussed by Bloom and Hirsch, and incorporates Charnofsky's admonitions about tolerance. Would that Freire's book had appeared ten years later -- it more aptly would have been entitled **Andragogy for the Oppressed!**

	COLUMN ONE	COLUMN TWO	COLUMN THREE
Goals	ACQUISITION OF ORGANIZED KNOWLEDGE	DEVELOPMENT OF INTELLECTUAL SKILLS - SKILLS OF LEARNING	ENLARGED UNDERSTANDING OF IDEAS AND VALUES
	by means of	by means of	by means of
Means	DIDACTIC INSTRUCTION LECTURES AND RESPONSES TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER AIDS	COACHING, EXERCISES, AND SUPERVISED PRACTICE	MAIEUTIC OR SOCRATIC QUESTIONING AND ACTIVE PARTICIPATION
	in three areas of subject-matter	in the operations of	in the
Areas Operations and Activities	LANGUAGE, LITERATURE, AND THE FINE ARTS MATHEMATICS AND NATURAL SCIENCE HISTORY, GEOGRAPHY, AND SOCIAL STUDIES	READING, WRITING, SPEAKING, LISTENING CALCULATING, PROBLEM-SOLVING OBSERVING, MEASURING, ESTIMATING EXERCISING CRITICAL JUDGMENT	DISCUSSION OF BOOKS (NOT TEXTBOOKS) AND OTHER WORKS OF ART AND INVOLVEMENT IN ARTISTIC ACTIVITIES e.g., MUSIC, DRAMA, VISUAL ARTS

THE THREE COLUMNS DO NOT CORRESPOND TO SEPARATE COURSES, NOR IS ONE KIND OF TEACHING AND LEARNING NECESSARILY CONFINED TO ANY ONE CLASS

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METACOGNITIVE DEFICIENCIES

For centuries, pedagogues -- as well as those who trained them -- focused intently upon teacher behaviors and the ensuing reactions of pupils as the central activity in the teaching-learning transaction. Shortly after the turn of this century, however, at least two significant developments began to shift the focus from teacher behaviors to those of the learner. The emergence of dynamism as a world view and the nascence of life span psychology as an academic discipline have been as instrumental as any contributing factors in the shift to primary emphasis upon learner behavior and learner-centered phenomena (Somers, 1988).

A key consequence of this change has been the recent appearance of a rapidly expanding corpus of theoretical works on the learning-to-learn phenomena and their potential applications for facilitating the development of autonomous learners. The use of the term **metacognition** -- "thinking about thinking" -- began appearing about eight years ago (Flavell, 1981; Brown et al., 1983). Subsequently, the perspective has widened considerably (Dillon and Schmeck, 1983; Pressley and Levin, 1983; Kirby, 1984; Anderson, 1985; Weinstein and Mayer, 1986; and Weinstein, 1981; 1987; 1989).

A recent and parallel development has been the emergence of works addressing the fragmentation of traditional culture and its attendant alienation as impediments to learning in the modern era. Recent works by E. D. Hirsch, Jr. (1987) and Allan Bloom (1987) have probed this line of inquiry rather exhaustively.

This writer contends that the ever growing body of research into metacognitive processes constitutes a valuable heuristic for the learning assistance professional in that it may not only be used as a framework within which to examine causes of marginal student performance, but that it in fact also subsumes at least four of the more common causes of poor academic performance by developmental learners. **Critical thinking deficiencies, general knowledge deficits, mispreparedness, and underpreparedness** comprise this metacognitive heuristic. Each of these four conditions are discussed in subsequent paragraphs.

Critical Thinking/Reasoning Deficiencies

In essence, this problem is defined as students who, for whatever reasons, have failed to master the basic reasoning and thinking skills necessary to properly process and correctly master academic materials. The inability to solve word problems in math, the failure to systematically

structure the written and spoken language organically, poor marks in courses requiring abstraction and generalization, and the apparent inability to grasp and apply the fundamental rules and procedures of content-specific course work are among the symptoms exhibited by the afflicted.

To confirm suspected cases, practitioners may choose to administer the **Cornell Critical Thinking Test**, the **Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal**, or the **Ross Test of Higher Cognitive Processes**. Ideally, these instruments should be used in conjunction with personal observations and interviews with individual students to determine more precisely the extent of the learner's reasoning and problem-solving abilities.

The single most likely cause of the problem is an educational history replete with emphasis on low-level skills such as rote memorization, but any circumstances precluding exposure to and experience with challenging academic tasks are suspect, e.g., a high rate of absenteeism or the premature curtailment of formal schooling. Students lacking adequate reasoning and critical thinking skills have been relegated, as it were, to the basement of Bloom's taxonomy, thus raising the spectre of incompetent or ineffective prior teaching as another possible cause. (Yes, it just could be possible that Johnny cannot read and write adequately because his teacher could not. Or, worse still, he believes he has adequate skills when in fact he was misled and wrongfully rewarded through the mechanism of "social promotion.")

Whatever the cause, the prognosis for both the long and short terms is a bright one, given a willingness for copious initial practice on the learner's part. Recommended short-term treatments include a semester of individual tutoring or guided group exercises in generic problem-solving workbooks in a lab setting, or a semester-long course in generic reasoning, thinking, and study skills. For the long-term, instruction in discipline-specific techniques and methods integrated into content area course work holds the most promise.

Generic attacks on the problem may be organized around the schema of learning strategies constructed by Weinstein and colleagues (Weinstein, 1987; Weinstein, 1989). Similarly, the works of Whimbey and associates (1984; 1986) and Garner (1987) also should be consulted for this purpose. As for longer-term, discipline- specific strategies, Feathers and White (1987) and Blais (1988) offer some proven methods for integrating metacognitive instruction into individual courses in language arts and mathematics respectively.

General Knowledge Deficits

Of all the nine reasons posited in this article for marginal performance by developmental students, the insufficient fund of general background knowledge brought into classes by our students is unequivocally the most vexing and the most hopeless. The brutal truth of the situation lies not in any inherent incapacity for helping on our part, but rather that those most desperately in need of treatment arrive far too late for us to effect resuscitation.

Professor E.D. Hirsch, Jr. of the University of Virginia explicates the problem cogently in his best-selling analysis, **Cultural Literacy: What Every American Needs to Know** (1987). The crux of his argument holds that traditional literate knowledge -- the information, attitudes, and assumptions shared by literate Americans -- serves as a sort of shorthand in our communications and is indispensable to the comprehension thereof. This commonly shared system of vivid associations evokes whole networks of lively traits, traditionally known facts, and values which, taken in their sum, comprise what he calls "mature cultural literacy."

In his view, the process of acculturation is a long and gradual one that depends not only upon intensive study in school, but also upon many years of extensive interaction with other literate people in various settings. Citing real-life examples of general knowledge deficits, Hirsch concludes that even the best of teachers cannot help students make sense of what they read if students believe that the Alamo is an epic poem generally attributable to Homer,that the Great Gatsby was a pre-eminent nineteenth century magician, or that Socrates was an American Indian chief!

Sadly, such comedic anecdotes have tragic implications for both learners and practitioners in that the lack of a shared body of facts, traditions, and symbols inevitably short-circuits the teaching-learning transaction at its outset. A universally shared national vocabulary of common cultural associations is as essential to successful intellectual transactions as a national currency like the dollar is in more mundane forms of commerce. General knowledge deficits therefore are all the more insidious in that they are analogous in effect to Gresham's law of money on our intellectual currency.

As noted earlier, the prognosis for general knowledge deficits is bleak indeed: it simply is impossible to compensate fully in two to four years for decades of neglect. Indeed, as early as 1965, Benjamin Bloom and colleagues argued that the odds of overcoming the type of schematic deficits cited by professor Hirsch are almost nil by the time students reach the tenth grade.

Subsequent psycholinguistic research has only confirmed Bloom's original proposition. For example, Chall (1982) has demonstrated that disadvantaged first graders are as competent at sounding out letters and simple words as their middle-class cohorts. During the early grades -- when reading skills are more mechanical than interpretive -- American children are as capable as any. By the fifth grade, however, their comparative standing with children from other countries begins to drop substantially (Thorndike, 1973; Anderson et al., 1985).

The reason for this decline is that children from culturally inadequate backgrounds begin to have difficulty in deriving meaning from written materials as a whole. Lacking the general knowledge necessary for full and correct interpretation, they miss key associations and implications. **Simply put, they are unable to put text into context.**

As if this scenario were not bleak enough already, professor Bloom (or, more aptly, Gloom?) reports that the problem of general knowledge deficits greatly afflicts even upper middle-class students. In **The Closing of the American Mind: How Higher Education Has Failed Democracy and Impoverished the Souls of Today's Students**, Bloom cites America's decadence as the systemic problem. (I invoke the term not for its more recent connotative meanings, but rather for the lexical meaning of its Latin roots -- **decadere**, literally, "a falling away from.") Confronted with a dynamic world in flux, American institutions generally, and universities in particular, have fallen away from traditional cultural norms and have been unable to fill that void with anything but cultural relativism which, in Bloom's view, has only furthered the disintegration of cultural identity and its cohesive value for society. Thus, lacking a sense of community, even America's best have become "developmental" owing to their general knowledge deficits.

Clearly, most authors define the problem, then despair of offering proposed solutions, claiming that the gulf between what is known and what should be known is just too great. Given that the consensus of scholarly opinion -- as well as common-sense -- dictates no quick and easy fix, the question becomes one of what interventions might ameliorate the symptoms in the relatively short span of time available to the learning-assistance practitioner.

As short-term treatments, the following suggestions may be helpful:

* provide preliminary background knowledge about key figures and concepts central to unit objectives, i.e., share humorous anecdotes about the human side of historical figures and use maps to show where they undertook their various adventures;

* emphasize the importance of cultural literacy and reinforce the notion with the judicious use of appropriate examples and references in daily learning activities;

* demonstrate that the educated person values cultural literacy; i.e., model the behavior of a culturally literate person for students;

* select reading, writing, and other curriculum materials that contribute to the acquisition of background knowledge for mature cultural literacy;

* develop role playing scenarios that emphasize the importance of background knowledge and cultural literacy in the conduct of everyday operations in business and industry; i.e., demonstrate the negative consequences of not knowing that Karastan does not border Pakistan!

Mispreparedness and Underpreparedness

As dean of the Harvard Graduate School of Education, Dr. Patricia Graham (1984) has proposed curricular reforms based upon two discrete but complementary components, the "extensive" and the "intensive" . The former is roughly equivalent to the universally shared body of general knowledge that has come to be characterized as cultural literacy. The intensive curriculum, by contrast, involves the rigorous, in-depth study of specific disciplines including not only their content, but also their unique methods. One way of appreciating her proposed construct is to note that the **extensive curriculum** is intended to cope with **general knowledge deficits**, while the intensive curriculum is designed to cope with the problems identified in this monograph as mispreparedness and underpreparedness.

In this light, mispreparedness and underpreparedness may be diagnosed as varying stages of the same affliction. Underpreparedness represents the disease in its initial and less complicated manifestation, while mispreparedness is a tertiary stage subsuming underpreparedness with complications.

Underprepared students simply did not acquire adequate discipline-specific background information about the application of skills in a given content area. Common examples of symptoms of this problem would include a math student who never heard of the distributive property and has no idea of how to begin the solution of an algebraic expression, or the student of composition who never learned to join independent clauses with a comma and an appropriate coordinating conjunction to form a compound sentence.

The misprepared student, on the other hand, knows just enough to be dangerous. Having learned improper methods and responses, students with this problem apply rules and procedures incorrectly. A typically misprepared math student would, for example, consistently and incorrectly attempt to simplify algebraic expressions by working from outside the parentheses and brackets inward, while the misprepared language arts student would neglect to append inflectional endings on verbs and nouns with any sense of uniformity and consistency.

Unlike the dismal prognosis for general knowledge deficits, the long-term rate of recovery from both underpreparedness and mispreparedness can be quite good. Skill deficiencies can be compensated for with properly designed regimens of academic calisthenics. The short-term prognosis for mispreparedness is, of course, less encouraging than that for underpreparedness inasmuch as the effects of incorrect prior learning must be neutralized before subsequent rehabilitative therapies can work fully.

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LEARNING DISABILITIES

Introduction

Contrary to popular opinion, true learning disabilities are infrequent causes of marginal performance among developmental students. The primary reason that this misconception enjoys such wide acceptance is a semantic one. For example, the term "disabled reader" (as used elsewhere in this paper) does not imply, nor is it synonymous with, "reader with a learning disability." In fact, LD students, as an archetypal group, clearly differ from other discrete learner constituencies such as the handicapped and the disadvantaged.

Ironically, lawyers and legislators -- as much as linguists and educators -- deserve considerable credit for bringing this rather blurry semantic picture into focus by developing and promulgating the standard working definitions now in currency for each of these terms. Exhaustive legal definitions for each group are contained in **Public Law 93-112** and **Public Law 94-142**, while the National Joint Commission on Learning Disabilities (1987) has specifically addressed the unique characteristics of the adult LD population. Indeed, a review of these documents validates equally the preceding commentary and the following definitions.

"LD," "Handicapped," and "Disadvantaged" Defined

Students with learning disabilities are those who suffer some psychological or neurological impairment that makes it difficult for them 1) to perceive and process information correctly, and/or 2) to express their thoughts clearly. Learning disabilities include minimal brain dysfunctions resulting from injury such as aphasia, dyslexia, and similar expressive or perceptual disorders. As a separate learning population, LD students are distinguished from the **handicapped**, whose learning difficulties are traceable to **congenital or acquired psychomotor dysfunctions**, and also from the disadvantaged, whose learning problems stem from socio-economic or cultural deprivations.

LD Students in Developmental Programs

While learning-assistance programs are increasingly being called upon to accommodate LD students as a fiscally expedient response to legal mandate (Longo, 1988; Yanok and Broderick, 1988; Lazarus, 1989), the reality remains that the LD and developmental student populations are two fundamentally discrete entities. Certainly LD and

developmental students may exhibit some common symptoms indicative of various learning problems, yet the etiology, diagnosis, prognosis, and management of those symptoms vary greatly.

The most marked difference between adult LD students and their developmental cohort consists in their rate of skills mastery. LD learners with average or better intellectual capacity frequently are incapable of skills acquisition despite years of repeated exposure (Brozo and Curtis, 1987), whereas sufficiently motivated developmental learners with similar abilities can and do achieve mastery at a developmentally appropriate rate.

Herein lies a most important diagnostic clue: **LD adults are permanently incapacitated in one or more channels of information processing and must compensate for such deficiencies by using alternative strategies**; in sharp relief, developmental adults, owing to the causes cited in this monograph, generally exhibit only temporary lags in skills mastery -- assuming proper intervention and treatment. This distinction should serve practitioners as their most effective diagnostic and management tool inasmuch as it enables them to make proper referrals to LD specialists.

Conclusions

Though the problems presented by LD adults to learning-assistance practitioners are quite serious, they pale in comparison with the other causes of marginal performance by developmental students. The reasons for this are several: the smaller size of the LD population, its discrete attributes, its legal recognition and protection, and its cadre of specialists trained to serve its unique needs. Thus, the first duty of the developmental specialist should be to developmental students.

This is not to say that practitioners should not be committed to helping LD students -- only that the emphasis of that commitment should be weighted and kept in perspective. What then is a proper and responsible role for the practitioner vis-a-vis the LD constituency?

Of immediate and primary importance is being informed about the immutable differences between adult LD and developmental learners. Of almost equal importance is providing referral and acting in a cooperative and consulting role with LD specialists who bear the responsibility for prescribing appropriate interventions and effective treatments. In actual practice then, developmental staff should assume an active but less comprehensive role in managing problems presented by LD adults -- i.e., adjusting instructional and classroom management strategies based upon the advice of the primary care professionals.

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For Review and Discussion

1. How does locus-of-control orientation (internality vs. externality) correlate with success expectancy?

2. What are the respective contributions of Dua, Reimanis and Schaefer, and Masters toward strengthening internality?

3. What are the major points in the general controversy surrounding the notion of adjusting teaching styles to accommodate various styles of learning? This debate aside, what is the most prudent course of action to pursue with remedial and developmental students?

4. What are the relative merits of representative reading assessment instruments currently in use?

5. Which instructional techniques hinder reading fluency? Which promote it?

6. Compare and contrast "the banking concept of education" with notion of **conscientizacao** in terms of their respective methods and desired outcomes.

7. What techniques -- other than those listed above -- might be effective in managing negative attitudes towards education?

8. What four causes of marginal performance comprise the metacognitive heuristic as it is currently configured?

9. Name four writers who propose practical solutions to the problems of critical thinking and reasoning deficiencies.

10. Briefly state the crux of the general-knowledge-deficits problem.

11. What additional techniques can you suggest to overcome general knowledge deficits?

12. Compare and contrast **mispreparedness** and **underpreparedness** in terms of causes and symptoms, diagnoses and treatments, and prognoses.

13. Distinguish LD students from their developmental, handicapped, and disadvantaged cohorts in terms of the root causes of their respective disabilities.

14. What single trait, as a coping strategy, characterizes the LD learner?

15. Given your study of this unit, what changes will you make in your courses, program, and institution?

APPENDICES

1/5/1
EJ342079 TM511469
The Construct and Concurrent Validity of a Measure of Academic Self-Concept and one of Locus of Control for a Sample of University Students.
Caracosta, Rhea; Michael, William B.
Educational and Psychological Measurement, v46 n3 p735-44 Aut 1986
Language: English
Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE (080); RESEARCH REPORT (143)
Journal Announcement: CIJJAN87
This study investigated the construct and concurrent validity of a standardized academic self-concept measure--Dimensions of Self-Concept (DOSC) Form H--and a measure of locus of control involving learning-related activities--the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (IAR). (LMO)
Descriptors: College Students; Correlation; Higher Education; *Locus of Control; *Self Concept Measures
Identifiers: Dimensions of Self Concept; Intellectual Achieve Responsibility Questionnaire

1/5/2
EJ186803 EC110525
Selective Attention and Locus of Control in Learning Disabled and Normal Children
Hallahan, Daniel P.; And Others
Journal of Learning Disabilities, 11, 4, 231-6 Apr 1978
Language: English
Journal Announcement: CIJE1979
Hagen's central-incidental learning task, the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (IAR), and the Nowicki-Strickland Scale (N-S) locus of control measures were used to examine selective attention and locus of control--two variables associated with motivation and learning--with 56 normal and learning disabled junior and senior high school students. (Author/DLS)
Descriptors: *Learning Disabilities; *Locus of Control; *Attention Control; Secondary Education; Exceptional Child Research; Individual Characteristics; Attention; Attention Span; Motivation; Learning

1/5/6
ED284774 SO018165
Locus of Control Differences between American and Chinese Adolescents.
Chiu, Lian-Hwang
Apr 1987
16p.; Paper presented at the Henry Lester Smith Research Conference (12th, Bloomington, IN, April 1-3, 1987).
EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
Language: English
Document Type: RESEARCH REPORT (143); CONFERENCE PAPER (150)
Geographic Source: U.S.; Indiana
Journal Announcement: RIEDEC87
Target Audience: Researchers
The construct of locus of control formulated by Rotter (1966) is being increasingly emphasized in personality functioning, since it appears to be related to several classes of behavior. It is also being considered as an

important construct in cross-cultural research. Cross-cultural comparisons are particularly important, not just because they may ultimately mediate group differences in certain kinds of behavior, but also because of their implications with respect to the antecedents of internal-external beliefs. The Intellectual Achievement Responsibilities Questionnaire (IAR) was administered to 194 U.S. adolescents, half males, half females. A translated version of the IAR Was administered to the same number of Chinese adolescents in the northern part of Taiwan. The results showed that in comparison with Chinese adolescents, U.S. adolescents were more internal in the attribution of their successes but more external in the attribution of their failures. Furthermore, American subjects were more internal in the attribution of their successes than their failures while the opposite was true for Chinese adolescents. (Author/BZ)

Descriptors: Achievement; Attribution Theory; *Cross Cultural Studies; Failure; Foreign Countries; Grade 10; *Locus of Control; Personality Studies; *Personality Traits; Self Concept; Social Science Research; *Success

Identifiers: *Chinese People; *Taiwan

1/5/13

ED119823 PS008374

Cognitive Styles of Puerto Rican Children.

Clark, Richard M.

30 Aug 1975

13p.; Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association (83rd, Chicago, Illinois, August 30-September 3, 1975)

EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.

Language: ENGLISH

Document Type: CONFERENCE PAPER (150)

Journal Announcement: RIEJUL76

This study compares the results of three psychometric tests which were administered to middle class children in first, third and fifth grades in Puerto Rico and to a similar sample in New York State. The tests used were: (1) the Matching Familiar Figures (MFF) Test, (2) the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility (IAR) Scale, and (3) a paired associate learning task. For each test, a comparative analysis was made of results from each sample population. Findings indicate substantially similar patterns of response to test items at each age level across cultures. This commonality is attributed to the fact that middle class Puerto Rican and New York children share many cultural elements. In each culture, school practices, television programs, stores and job roles are closely comparable. The paired associate task did results in discrepant results across the two cultures; however, reasons for this are not understood and it is noted that the processes of memory do follow similar developmental trends in each population. Comparative psychometrics across cultures is discussed and the view is expressed that the underlying constructs that these three tests are designed to measure are meaningful in all cultures. (GO)

Descriptors: *Anglo Americans; Comparative Testing; Conceptual Tempo; *Cross Cultural Studies; Cultural Influences; *Elementary Education; Locus of Control; Paired Associate Learning; *Psychometrics; *Puerto Ricans

1/5/18
ED029066 UD007857
Non-Intellectual Factors in the Education of Black High School Students.
Miller, LaMar P.
6 Feb 1969
18p.; Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association annual meeting (Los Angeles, Calif., February 6, 1969).
EDRS Price - MF01/PC01 Plus Postage.
Language: ENGLISH
Journal Announcement: RIESEP69
Studied was "the relationship between intellectual achievement responsibility and the variables of self esteem, awareness of upward mobility, intelligence, and academic success." Subjects were 429 black high school students who completed a questionnaire consisting of a biographical inventory, a section on attitudes and aspirations, and an intellectual achievement responsibility scale (IAR). The only significant relationship found was between IAR and awareness of upward mobility. The study warrants the general conclusion that "intellectual achievement responsibility is not consistently related to the non-intellectual factors identified in this study." More specifically, these black students feel "a sense of control of their academic success or failure that is not necessarily associated with performance." They seem to have "attitudes necessary for academic motivation: interest in education, high self concept, and a sense of control of academic environment." (NH)
Descriptors: *Academic Achievement; Aspiration; Black Attitudes; *Black Students; Family Characteristics; Grade Point Average; High School Students ; *Intelligence; Questionnaires; Research; *Self Esteem; *Social Mobility
Identifiers: Intellectual Achievement Responsibility

1/5/2
74-05717
The construct and concurrent validity of a measure of academic self-concept and one of locus of control for a sample of university students.
Caracosta, Rhea; Michael, William B.
U Southern California
Educational & Psychological Measurement, 1986 Fal Vol 46(3) 735-744
CODEN: EPMEAJ ISSN: 00131644
Journal Announcement: 7402
Language: ENGLISH Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE
Completed a factor analysis of the intercorrelations of 20 4-item subtests of the 5 scales of the Dimensions of Self-Concept (DOSC)--Form H, an academic self-concept measure, and of 6 subtests from the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (IAR), a locus of control measure. Ss were 239 undergraduates. Results indicate the following: The DOSC reflects 5 distinct factor dimensions consistent with a theory of academic self-concept proposed by the 2nd author and R. A. Smith (see PA, Vol 57:7224). The IAR is a unidimensional measure quite independent of the DOSC. (9 ref) (PsycINFO Database Copyright 1987 American Psychological Assn, all rights reserved)
Descriptors: TEST VALIDITY (52280); ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT (00190); SELF CONCEPT (46220); INTERNAL EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL (26150); COLLEGE STUDENTS (10320); CONSTRUCT VALIDITY (11445); ADULTHOOD (01150)
Identifiers: construct & concurrent validity of Dimensions of Self

Concept-Form H & Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire, measurement of self concept & locus of control, college students
Section Headings: 3590 (COUNSELING & MEASUREMENT)

1/5/12
62-01314
Selective attention and locus of control in learning disabled and normal children.
Hallahan, Daniel P.; Gajar, Anna H.; Cohen, Sandra B.; Tarver, Sara G.
U Virginia
Journal of Learning Disabilities, 1978 Apr Vol 11(4) 231-236 CODEN: JLDIAD ISSN: 00222194
Journal Announcement: 6201
Language: ENGLISH Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE
Studied 28 learning disabled (LD) Ss, mean age 14.29 yrs, and 28 matched normal Ss, mean age 13.97 yrs, in order to examine variables associated with motivation and learning. J. W. Hagen's (see PA, Vol 41:16479) central-incidental learning task (a test of selective attention), the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (IAR), and the Nowicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale (N-S) were administered to the Ss. A deficiency in selective attention differentiated the LD Ss from normals. Results support previous research while expanding the use of the selective attention measure from an individual to a group procedure. Nonsignificant correlations between the IAR and N-S verified the separate orientations of the 2 instruments while demonstrating the overall external beliefs of LD Ss. An unexpected finding is that internal locus of control and selective attention were negatively related within the normal group. (20 ref)
Descriptors: SELECTIVE ATTENTION; INTERNAL EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL; LEARNING DISABILITIES; CHILDREN; ADOLESCENTS
Identifiers: selective attention & locus of control, learning disabled students
Section Headings: 3250 (LEARNING DISORDERS & MENTAL RETARDATION)

1/5/15
58-12480
Domain specific aspects of locus of control: Implications for modifying locus of control orientation.
Bradley, Robert H.; Gaa, John P.
U Arkansas, Little Rock
Journal of School Psychology, 1977 Spr Vol 15(1) 18-24
Journal Announcement: 5806
Language: ENGLISH Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE
Studied 36 10th graders to see if locus of control (LOC) orientation with respect to intellectual achievement could be changed and to determine whether the change generalized to other types of situations. Goal-setting conferences were employed to improve LOC orientation for academic achievement situations. Significant differences were observed between the goal-setting conference group, the conference only group, and the control group on 3 measures of LOC orientation pertaining to academic situations: intellectual/academic, positive (IAR+) and intellectual/academic, negative (IAR-) scores from the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire, plus the Intellectual/Academic (IA) subscale of the Locus of Control Inventory for Three Achievement Domains (LOCITAD). No significant

differences were recorded on the SA (LOC orientation for social achievement situations) and the PA (LOC orientation for physical achievement situations) of LOCITAD. High correlations were observed between Intellectual Achievement Responsibility scores and scores on the IA subscale of LOCITAD. More moderate correlations were observed between IAR scores and the other LOCITAD subscales. Results support domain-specific aspects of LOC. Results imply that educators can design programs to modify LOC orientation with less fear that a more internal orientation for academic situations will lead to maladaptive responses in other types of situations. Results also support the development of more precise measures of LOC.

Descriptors: INTERNAL EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL; CLASSROOM BEHAVIOR MODIFICATION; ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT; HIGH SCHOOL STUDENTS

Identifiers: goal-setting conference group vs conference group alone, locus of control orientation with respect to intellectual achievement, 10th graders

Section Headings: 3530 (CURRICULUM PROGRAMS & TEACHING METHODS)

1/5/16

56-01437

Relationship between self-esteem and locus of control in Black and White fifth-grade students.

Burbach, Harold J.; Bridgeman, Brent

U Virginia

Child Study Journal, 1976 Vol 6(1) 33-37

Journal Announcement: 5601

Language: ENGLISH Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE

Examined the relationship between Coopersmith's Self Esteem Inventory (CSEI) and the Intellectual Achievement Responsibility Questionnaire (IAR). A sample of 274 5th graders was subdivided by sex and race, and a ow positive relationship between these 2 scales persisted across all groups. When the total Intellectual score was separated into its Intellectual-Success and Intellectual-Failure and components and correlated with the CSEI, it was discovered that for females and Black males, self-esteem was significantly related to taking personal credit for academic success. High self-esteem among White males was significantly related to accepting blame for academic failure.

Descriptors: INTERNAL EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL; SELF ESTEEM; ELEMENTARY SCHOOL STUDENTS; HUMAN SEX DIFFERENCES; RACIAL DIFFERENCES; NEGROES; CAUCASIANS; ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT; FAILURE

Identifiers: self esteem, perceived locus of control for academic success & failure, male vs female & white vs black 5th graders

Section Headings: 3560 (CLASSROOM DYNAMICS & STUDENT ADJUSTMENT & ATTITUDES)

1/5/22

49-02456

Atypical patterns in locus of control and nonadaptive behavior.

DuCette, Joseph; Wolk, Stephen; Soucar, Emil

Temple U.

Journal of Personality, 1972 Jun Vol. 40(2) 287-297 CODEN: JOPEA

Journal Announcement: 4902

Language: ENGLISH Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE

Investigated the relationship between locus of control and disruptive,

maladjustive behavior in young children. Moderator variables of this relationship were examined through racial membership in Study I and intellectual ability in Study II. 40 8-10 yr. old males participated in Study I, while in Study II the Ss were 76 8-14 yr. olds. Locus of control was assessed by Crandall's IAR Scale. Results in both studies suggest that a discrepancy between the assumption of responsibility for positive and negative events might be conducive to maladaptive behavior. (18 ref.)

Descriptors: INTELLIGENCE; RACIAL DIFFERENCES; SCHOOL AGE CHILDREN; BEHAVIOR DISORDERS; INTERNAL REWARDS; EXTERNAL REWARDS

Identifiers: atypical patterns in locus of control, nonadaptive behavior, black & white 8-10 yr. old males & high & low IQ 8-14 yr. old males & females

Section Headings: 3100 (PERSONALITY)

1/5/23
47-05484

Impulsivity and locus of control as predictors of achievement and adjustment in mildly retarded and borderline youth.

Shipe, Dorothy

Ontario Inst. for Studies in Education, Toronto, Canada

American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 1971, Jul, Vol. 76(1), 12-22

CODEN: AJMDA

Journal Announcement: 4703

Language: ENGLISH Document Type: JOURNAL ARTICLE

Measures of delaying capacity voluntary choice of delay of gratification (dg), the porteus mazes (pm), and kagan matching familiar figures (mff) were related to one another, to 2 measures of locus of control (lc), and to measures of social competence in 2 groups of mildly retarded and borderline males: 45 institutionalized and 46 vocational school youths with mean ages of 20.6 and 15.9 yr., respectively. For ss from the vocational school, but not for those from the occupational training center, significant and positive intercorrelations were found between the mff, pm, lc, and iar. The more internal lc and less impulsive vocational school ss received higher academic and shop grades. Less striking but positive relationships to teacher ratings of adjustment were also found. (38 ref.)

Descriptors: PERSONALITY TRAITS; SPECIAL EDUCATION; MENTALLY RETARDED; INTERNAL EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL; LEARNING ; MENTAL RETARDATION; MENTAL RETARDATION; VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION

Identifiers: achievement & adjustment prediction, impulsivity & locus of control, mildly retarded youths in institution & vocational school

Section Headings: 3200 (PHYSICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL DISORDERS)

The following two appendices have been removed due to copyright restrictions. Both were from the Journal of Developmental & Remedial Education. They were:

1) "Interview with Al Canfield," by Hunter Boylan, Volume 4, Number 2, Winter 1981, pages 25-27.

2) "The 4MAT System: An Interview with Bernice McCarthy," by Susan Morris Leflar, Volume 6, Number 2, Winter 1983, pages 14-17, 29.

Fiftieth Yearbook of the
Claremont Reading Conference,

Edited by Malcolm P. Douglass,
Claremont Graduate School, Claremont,
California, 1986

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Conference

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A Testimonial on Timed Testing:

Developmental Students and Reading Comprehension Tests

Gene Kerstiens

The reality for most entering freshman students is that they must submit to placement testing. This test, or test battery, typically includes a timed reading comprehension component which employs challenging reading material. And the reading passages presented require exacting reading and thinking skills in order to answer the comprehension items that accompany the reading passages. Also, the passages and test items on these comprehension tests are so numerous that most students do not finish the test. In fact, test compilers' expectations are that only a gifted minority — or some students given to skimming and random responding — will answer all test items. On such time-critical reading comprehension tests, the rate at which students read and respond obviously influences their scores.

Inevitably, students who score low on the reading test portion of a placement exam are candidates for academic intervention. These developmental students (1) (2) (3) are typically either required to enter or are counseled into a program designed to remedy whatever reading deficiency or disorder the test score can be interpreted to identify. But in order to gain access to other courses or programs in the curriculum, the developmental student once again may be subjected to a time-critical reading comprehension test in order to prove that his skills have sufficiently appreciated to allow for academic success. Especially, then, for developmental students, time-critical reading comprehension tests are a sobering academic reality

with which they must contend. And when we consider that as many as half of the students tested in a given college population can be identified as developmental or as unprepared, the significance of the testing process takes on formidable proportions.

Most interestingly, timed reading comprehension tests continue to enjoy high utilization in colleges and universities in spite of the fact that critics have consistently and continually attacked their validity. As early as 1921, Gates (4) questioned the practice of employing speeded reading tests. Some 18 years later, Flanagan (5) found fault with speeded comprehension tests when he learned that as subjects' scores increased, their degree of accuracy diminished. By 1951, Preston and Botel had pronounced timed reading comprehension tests "untenable." (6) In his 1962 review of research on reading comprehension tests, Rankin (7) cited numerous critics who found design faults in time-critical tests of reading comprehension. Again in 1962, Davis (8) revealed that a speeded reading comprehension test that was scored without correction for chance-success was invalid. As late as 1982, Stetson (9) reported that students enjoying post-test gains on the *Nelson-Denny Reading Test* did so only by sacrificing accuracy of comprehension. Regardless of this evidence and virtually none to the contrary, "Ironically, the increasing popularity of certain tests seems to be inversely related to the negative comments of critics." (10)

Noticeably, few reported studies on timed comprehension testing can be regarded as recent. Also, none of the previous research focuses directly upon the testing experience of developmental students, an increasingly visible population that frequents our developmental reading courses and developmental programs designed to remedy students' academic skills deficiencies. Therefore, a study was conducted to learn the effect of timing on the reading comprehension scores and testing behaviors of these students who, most likely, are confronted more than once with time-sensitive reading tests. (11)

Accordingly, two reading comprehension tests were administered to 95 community college students who conformed to the *developmental* definition. (1) (2) (3) First, the reading section of the *Cooperative English Test*, Form 1A, (12) was administered *untimed* so that students were allowed to complete all items on the test. This measure yielded a comprehension score; it also provided another variable: the amount of time each student used to complete the test. Two days later, the reading section of the *Cooperative Reading Test*, Form 1B, was administered under the timed conditions prescribed by the test manual. This measure yielded comprehension scores; additionally, students' answer sheets were surveyed to ascertain the number of comprehension items that each student had attempted. The measures collected on these four variables constitute the empirical basis for the study, which was calculated to discover the effect of timing on developmental students' performance on a reading comprehension test.

Perhaps predictably, this study corroborated the critical findings of its predecessors. The notable observations and conclusions derived from the study follow.

1. When timing is imposed as a critical factor on a reading comprehension test, not only are scores affected, but also the manner in which the test measures.
2. Students' scores on a timed reading comprehension test are positively correlated (r=.61) to the number of items attempted; in fact, scores on timed tests are largely affected by the artifact of completing more items. (9)
3. Whether on a timed or an untimed reading comprehension test, there is no relationship between the speed at which students respond and the accuracy of their responses.
4. Students responded to test items on a timed test at 35 percent accuracy; this degree of accuracy is only 10 percent above chance.

5. Developmental students, whose rate behaviors are relatively slow, would need to be exceedingly accurate responders to score creditably on a time-critical test.
6. Developmental students are particularly vulnerable to the measurement bias of timed testing, especially because of the accident of deliberative reading.
7. There appears to be no quality or value in speed of response that can be clearly related to reading comprehension.
8. Time-critical reading comprehension tests suffer from a design flaw, because their measures are obtained from samples that occasion speed set; accordingly, they do not assess the normally unhurried reading behaviors and competencies of a student learning from text.

These findings substantiate the position that time-critical reading tests, which critics have viewed as unsuitable for student populations as a whole, are even less appropriate for developmental students whose rate behaviors are comparatively retarded. Not only do these tests penalize students whose deliberative reading may produce a greater degree of accuracy of comprehension, (13) (14) (15) but they reward accelerated rate behaviors that, as far as can be determined, are inconsequential to a student's ability to create meaning from print.

Speeded comprehension tests are, however, inappropriate for considerations beyond the issue of test validity. One of their far-reaching residual effects is that they encourage student behaviors of guessmanship — wild guessing, random responding, and "answer grabbing" (16) — whose only function is score escalation. Again, time-critical reading comprehension tests discourage deliberative reading that even the most advanced readers typically employ to understand challenging material. (13) (17) Perhaps most importantly, they are at least partially responsible for the loss in credibility that our testing, placement, and developmental programs themselves have experienced; for a test that has a hidden agenda is guilty of duplicity,

and neither our developmental programs nor the educational industry at large can afford to perpetuate doubt about its integrity.

The question that surfaces is, "Why do practitioners and the institutions in which they flourish continue to place undeserved confidence in time-critical reading comprehension tests?" If we take a slow, objective look at the history of post-secondary reading comprehension testing through the last 65 years, we may arrive at an answer. It all started innocently and without insidious intent.

At the outset, timed tests appealed to our penchant for efficiency and organization. Early on we found they could be propitiously scheduled and that many of them could be administered during a class period — a feature that continues to be a well-advertised selling point today. Being minimally disruptive to our instructional scheduling, timed tests became welcome as a component of counseling and guidance services. These tests promised to yield results comparable to those obtained on untimed tests while neatly fitting into our established institutional time frames.

As the practicality of these tests was recognized, their popularity increased. And their widespread use contributed to the reassuring feeling that trust and confidence in the tests had inspired their adoption. Also, these tests affected to be especially objective since it was assumed that controlling the time variable would make test results more equitable, even more scientific. Also, the notion that these tests were somehow more authentic was emboldened by the glittering promises included in or the data discreetly omitted from their test manuals. (18) (19)

As semesters passed and as we remained serenely indifferent to critical research, practitioners' testing practices remained distorted by the urgency of their task and the obligations of the moment. Through the years, the practice of speeded reading comprehension testing collected support as a ship collects barnacles. As the tests enjoyed wide use, they were naturally cited more often in studies and reports. Deft references to

these tests abound in the professional literature, especially during the last 30 years, this frequency and duration implying respectability.

But there were even more compelling reasons why we continued to use timed reading comprehension tests and that we somehow sustained confidence in them. First, we became very comfortable with pre- and post-testing with these instruments, because they appeared to justify or even flatter our instructional practices. Most conveniently, these tests initially diagnosed students as deficient and then pronounced them recovered or restored after the prescribed treatment. Next, we found that speeded comprehension tests generously complemented the texts and workbooks authored by reading instructors, some of whom do not score as well on a speeded comprehension test as half of the freshman class tested. (2) Indeed, it would appear that the flood of skills-drills, skimming-scanning, speed-efficiency workbooks, is at least partly attributable to the bias and inclination of a test that might validate them. Accordingly and collegially, we have continued to nourish the cozy, comfortable, tacit understandings that serve as infrastructure for many of our programs and practices.

Which is to say that the time has come to change our preferences for time-critical reading comprehension tests and to reevaluate our courses and programs with consideration to research that shows a promising direction. (21) (22) (23)

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CULTURAL LITERACY: WHERE DO YOU STAND

by

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With the advent of such books as A NATION AT RISK from the Department of Education, THE CLOSING OF THE AMERICAN MIND by Alan Bloom, and various surveys on the ignorance of many high school graduates, cultural literacy has become a new concern among educators.

While I firmly agree that cultural literacy is important, I think a more unique approach is needed in presenting the urgency of cultural literacy. What is needed is a test to not only find out the extent of ignorance in our society, but also a test that can show the extent to which popular trends have distorted our literacy. I may have devised just such a test and I wish to share it with the reading public, might I add, with tongue deeply placed in cheek if not stuck out. The test runs as follows:

1) Burundi is:

   A. A country in Southeast Africa where recently about 20,000 Hutus were massacred by the dominating Tutsi tribe

   B. A new health-conscious dessert from Taco Bell consisting of dried apples, prunes, raisins, tofu and granola wrapped in a bran tortilla

   C. An onomatapoeia for a motocycle's sound

   D. A new brand of yuppie sports car combining the best features of the Barretta, the Yugo (titter, titter, chortle, chortle,) and the Audi.

2) Yosemite is:

   A. A national park located in California

   B. A racist epithet used by Louis Farakhan and followed up with assorted death threats

   C. A cartoon character whose first name is Sam and who wants to see Fearless Freep dive

D. A giant bug which the administration has doubtless chosen to be the new mascot to replace Yosef the Mountaineer [the ASU mascot], without our knowledge, of course.

3) Fetus is:

A. Marshall Dillon's deputy on GUNSMOKE

B. The last name of the man who has a carpentry show on Public Television, and whose first name is Bob

C. A well-developed embryo

D. Some obscurantist B-Boy terminology probably meaning as much as "word" does after a sentence

4) Condominium is:

A. A handy take-along "safe-sex" package

B. A gathering of people meeting for the purpose of making use of such packages

C. The Latin name of the Papal Encyclical condemning both of these

D. A set of individually-owned apartments.

5) Sine qua non is:

A. The life of the party

B. A new hallucinogenic drug derived from mushrooms like those I kicked apart over near East [a dorm]

C. A Latin phrase meaning "Without which nothing"

D. A new brand of nasal spray.

6) Bonavista is:

A. A long-haired heavy metal rock band adored by teenage jailbait the world over

B. A small town in Newfoundland, Canada

C. A type of candy

D. The German branch of a major American credit card company.

7) The "Sour Grapes" Rationalization is:

A. The theological grounds for certain Communion practices in certain Protestant churches best left unnamed

B. The defense frequently use by fraternities in sexual assault cases

C. A psychological device used against the pain of failure (i.e., "Oh, well, I never really wanted that anyway")

D. An argument for boycott of California Grapes made by United Farm Workers president Caesar Chavez.

8) Libido is:

A. A small hamster

B. A brand name of canned fruits and vegetables

C. The country where Moammar Qadaffi rules

D. The sexual drive which Sigmund Freud held to derive from the libido.

9) THE BROTHERS KARMAZOV was written by:

A. Steve Martin and Dan Aykroyd

B. Their cousins the Flying Wallendas

C. Fyodor Dostoyevsky

D. Malcolm X and Shirley MacLaine.

10) Bioluminescence is:

A. A proclivity written about on the bathroom walls of the library

B. The theory that pollution will go away if we just have a government committee "shed a little more light on the subject"

C. A New Age practice of trying to "channel" the spirit world by sitting in front of a blank projector and saying "ohm"

D. The ability of certain animals to naturally produce light.

11) Quid Pro Quo is:

A. A person very knowledgeable of British exchange rates

B. A new brand of tennis shoe

C. A Latin phrase for "something in return"

D. Some strange Japanese dish which you risk your life on every time you eat it.

12) IVANHOE was written by:

A. Mikhail Gorbechev

B. The United Farm Workers Union

C. Yakoff Schmirnoff

D. Sir Walter Scott.

ANSWERS TO CULTURAL LITERACY

Editor's Note: The following are the answers and rating for the Cultural Liteacy Test in the October 13, 1988 editon of THE APPALACHIAN by Al Human entitled "Cultural Literacy: Where do you stand?"

The correct answers are:

1) A, 2) A, 3) C, 4) D, 5) C, 6) B, 7) C, 8) D, 9) C. 10) D, 11) C, 12) D.

Give yourself one point for each correct answer and rate yourself as follows:

NUMBER CORRECT	YOUR RATING
12-10	Cultural Renaissance Person
9-7	Pretty well-read
6-4	Novice at culture, but improvable
3-1	Your mushroom habit has destroyed your memory
0	A bran tortilla has more cultural literacy

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